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BRITISH AFFAIRS

A QUARTERLY MAGAZINE

THE COLOMBO PLAN TENTH ANNIVERSARY

SHIPPING POLICY

EDUCATIONAL AND TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE
TO LESS DEVELOPED LANDS

THE EDINBURGH INTERNATIONAL FESTIVAL

TWO WAY TRADE

BRITAIN AND THE COMMONWEALTH

CIVIL DEFENSE

IN BRITAIN

The Stately Homes of Britain—The Budget 1961-1962

Britain's National Health Services

A Revolution in School Building

VOL. V. NO. 2—SUMMER 1961

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British Affairs

The past quarter has seen momentous developments in Britain's affairs, in Africa, in Europe and in the world-wide security commitments which she shares with the United States. But Africa has, perhaps, been the greatest continuing preoccupation of the British authorities. The departure of South Africa from the Commonwealth association was a historic development, clouding the lives of many who have close ties in other lands of the Commonwealth family. Sierra Leone and Cyprus have emerged as fully fledged independent members of the Commonwealth. The detailed constitutional plans which have been advanced in twelve of Britain's dependencies continue to be developed in public debates and private discussions.

In Britain itself a new Government department is now being formed to take over continuing responsibilities for supplying the manpower and technical assistance to these and other countries in receipt of aid from Britain, estimated to amount in the current year to \$500 million of Government grants and loans.

The association of Britain with the European Common Market is being widely discussed as this issue of British Affairs goes to press.

The Prime Minister explained to the House of Commons that the issue is not just one of signing on the dotted line the Treaty of Rome or "paying your subscription and joining the club."

He explained that Britain's existing obligations to the Commonwealth and to her other partners in the European Free Trade Association would probably require renegotiation of some of the terms of that treaty. The British Ministers had been trying, in private talks, to see "whether we could get near enough to propose a formal negotiation with a very good chance of its success. It would be a terrible mistake to have a formal negotiation which broke down," the Prime Minister said.



The Colombo Plan

Ten Years of Cooperative Effort

Overseas development is not synonymous with the giving of money or the making of loans.

No money is dispensed by the Colombo Plan: but the plan has powerfully assisted the process of economic growth in Asia and South East Asia.

Consultation on economic needs, on the interrelated questions of export prices for crops, inflation, population growth and administrative procedures have all been taken up in the Colombo exchanges: above all, the Plan has given an impetus to the central problem of providing trained men, from tax specialists to tractor maintenance mechanics.

This does not mean that monetary aid and credit has not been a main requirement or that it has not been forthcoming: the United States is the biggest single contributor having supplied \$5.6 billion mainly under its ICA and agricultural surplus disposal schemes, to the total of over \$8 billion provided in these ten years.

Of the countries outside the area of the Plan, the United States and Japan are the two non-Commonwealth members of an organization that started purely as a Commonwealth affair, developing the means of consultation, self help and mutual aid usually associated with the Commonwealth.

Australia, New Zealand and Canada have contributed generously not only of money and materials, but of men and training facilities for men, both in the field and in their own universities and technical schools.

It is the same with Britain. Some \$400 million of Government aid for capital projects has been backed by training programs for over 3,000 "Colombo" students brought to the British Isles and nearly 500 British experts sent to give instruction in the area of the Plan.

The picture shows crop specialists and entomologists from the Philippines, India and Indonesia, studying the chemistry of pest control. They are in England under the Colombo Plan.

British Shipping and International Policy

by
W. Errington Keville, C.B.E.,
President of the Chamber of Shipping
of the United Kingdom

Shipping is an international industry. Freedom to trade to every quarter of the globe without restriction and without fear or favor was the policy on which there was built up the vast and intricate network of shipping services which have been of such inestimable value to world trade, and indeed without which world trade could never have reached its present huge proportions.

This has not been the policy merely of Great Britain. It has been international shipping policy for over a hundred years and it is natural, therefore, that any departure from it by any nation should be regarded with concern.

For it is a fact, unhappily, that while there has been a general movement throughout the world towards liberalization of trade—a movement to which both the United States and Great Britain have lent their powerful support—there is steadily developing an opposite tendency where shipping is concerned. Shipping of maritime countries like Great Britain is now being faced with policies of economic nationalism on the part of an increasing number of nations in respect of their seaborne trade and, at the same time, with increasing interference on the part of foreign governments in the day to day commercial operations of shipping. The effect of these policies is to saddle world trade with a wholly unnecessary addition to its transport costs and to deprive traders of their freedom to ship cargoes in vessels of their own choice.

It may surprise readers to learn that some 40 governments have, in recent years, been actively seeking in one way or another to divert to ships of their own flags cargoes which in the normal commercial course would find their way into ships of all flags. Of these 40 governments, some 35 of them—in many cases in addition to other discriminatory measures—have included in bilateral trade treaties provisions aimed at reserving the cargo moving under these treaties to ships of the two countries concerned. Commercial considerations and the vital spur of competition have no part in these policies and, unless they are discarded, or at least much modified, competitive international shipping services on which efficient trade so largely depends, must inevitably disappear.

It is understandable, therefore, that the trend of events is causing grave apprehension amongst those maritime nations still striving to maintain and uphold those conditions in which the free flow of international trade can operate.

Britain is a country of 52 million people. Not one of them lives more than 50 miles or so from the sea. The country is dependent upon shipping for the importation of its food, without which the population would starve, and for the export of manufactured products to pay for these imports. It is no wonder, therefore, that the British are a sea-minded people and that to them ships are symbols of their very existence.

The British Government has long recognized that "the foreign commerce of the United Kingdom" is, by definition, the foreign commerce of other countries, her trading partners, as well.

Accordingly, Britain maintains a policy of allowing foreign vessels to trade in and out of British ports without any restriction over their operations beyond the usual regulations covering marine safety.

Rudyard Kipling once described our island as a ship with never more than six weeks' supplies of consumable stores on board at one time. The position is not likely to have altered materially in the intervening years for we still have to import over half our food supplies. The freedom of the oceans has never been more important to our country's economy than it is today. It is not only the island's life line. In addition, the sale of British shipping services throughout the world is one of our principal exports and a substantial contributor to our balance of payments.

We have nothing to be ashamed of in the past. The development of our Empire, later our Commonwealth, owes an immense amount to the enterprise and initiative of shipowners for more than 100 years.

We played a leading part in the development of refrigeration in ships, something which has immeasurably improved the standard of living of many countries, including our own. Equally important is the fact that the producing countries, by being able to sell more of their produce because of the advent of the refrigerated ship, have in turn become purchasers of manufactured goods in increasing volume. Thus the wheels of trade have been kept turning with ever-growing momentum.

Then there are the tankers, which have also been instrumental in bringing about a revolution in human affairs. We know that the early oil companies emerged mainly in the New World around the oil-producing states, but it was to the Old World and Britain in particular, with its vast experience in the technique of ship operation and shipbuilding, that the

American oil industry looked for the building and operation of the first tankers, from which have been developed the modern giants we know today.

May I emphasize that in asking for the abandonment, or at least curtailment of the practices which British shipowners are convinced are detrimental to the health of world shipping, they are not asking for anything new. Rather are they appealing for a return to conditions under which the shipping of the world can engage in fair and open competition in seaborne trade, with economy and efficiency the standards by which performance is judged, and traders have freedom of choice and can select the shipping service best suited to their needs.

Some of our American friends seem to have seen something sinister in the stand taken by British shipowners and their continental colleagues. There have been assertions that we are engaged in a campaign to sweep the American merchant marine from the seas.

Nothing could be farther from the truth. We recognize that America must have a merchant fleet both for strategic and commercial purposes. We realize that, because of the high cost of building ships in America and of operating them under the United States flag, competition with the traditional maritime countries would be impossible without some form of government help and that subsidies therefore cannot be avoided. But the danger of resorting to a policy of subsidizing shipping is that other countries may be encouraged or obliged to do likewise. This could develop into a subsidy race at the taxpayers' expense, with shipping coming increasingly under governmental control.

British shipowners have traditionally taken the view that subsidies, as a permanent form of general assistance to their industry, do not offer a long-term solution to its problems, so long as it remains possible for shipping to be operated on a commercial basis. We still firmly believe in private enterprise, free from government assistance or interference.

May we not appeal, therefore, to our American friends to try to understand our point of view?

Twice within a normal lifetime half of the British merchant fleet was lost in the cause of freedom. Twice British shipowners have replaced those losses, largely out of their own resources. Our shipping—in common with that of many other West European countries—is an essential element of our national economy and a vital link in the make-up of N.A.T.O.—for the strength of this organization depends both on economic and military power.

We ask that that link should not be weakened; if it is, the cause of freedom will be weakened too.

Requirements for Unity

In his Massachusetts Institute of Technology address Friday, April 7, Mr. Macmillan called on his listeners to look beyond the concept of "interdependence" to the goal of "a wider unity, transcending traditional barriers: unity of purpose, of method and of organization." The Prime Minister named military and defense problems and the "complex of economic questions" as issues "decisive to our way of economic life."

Economic Issues Confronting the West

The Prime Minister gave in some detail his views on three lines of economic advance: how to maximize world trading; how to build up the less-developed countries; and how to provide finance for an ever-increasing volume of trade and aid. Trade policies called for the eventual goal of "free trade for a free world."

In Europe for a start the urgent need was for a comprehensive arrangement, non-protective, outward-looking, ready and able to help others. It would not harm the United States. It would prevent the rift in Europe from growing with the serious political consequences that would follow from this.

For the under-developed countries trade would remain more important than aid and the broad role (for Western countries) should be to admit goods as freely as possible. The importance of price stability for less-developed countries was picked upon by the Prime Minister as a problem for urgent study. By 1960 primary product prices as a whole had fallen to below the 1950 level.

The aid programs of the West were, the Prime Minister reminded, far in excess of those of the Soviet Union. Much of that aid went through international organizations, through channels that were boycotted by the Communist countries. The Prime Minister welcomed the new O E C D arrangements (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development) not least because it represented "new and entirely free-world machinery whose work could be unequivocally displayed as the contribution of the West to less-developed lands."

A World Central Bank?

The Prime Minister's most important thoughts concerned the financing of trade and aid while ensuring that there was enough money in circulation. For this purpose the Prime Minister said:

"Just as each individual country painfully acquired its central banking system, so there ought ideally to be a central banking system for all the

countries of the free world. We are still a long way from that, although, with the various international institutions which have come into being since the war, and with the ever closer cooperation of central banks we are groping our way forward. The present system is certainly not perfect. . .” “First, there is the imbalance of payments. If you will forgive a rather frivolous comparison, our monetary system in the world today is rather like a children’s game. When the family sit around at Christmas to play rummy or cooncan or poker or whatever it may be, and one child gets all the chips, and another has not enough to go on. Well, something must be done: either more chips must come from the bank, which father generally keeps, or the winning children must hand over some of theirs to the others. Otherwise the game stops.”

“But is there enough money?”

“World trade has expanded four times in terms of money since before the last war. Yet, the free world credit base is only twice as big. No wonder some people argue that we have not got enough reserves in total and must create more to finance expanding trade. All sorts of remedies are being suggested. The main difficulty, I think, about many of these is what I might call the mental hurdles which they present. It is normal to think of money as something painfully acquired. A dollar represents so many drops of sweat, or so many ulcers. There seems to be something immoral in increasing the credit base by mutual agreement. It is done often enough in our internal economy, but the extension to the international field is hard to swallow. All the same, I repeat: expanding trade needs expanding money.”

Overseas Development—The British Contribution

U. S. Secretary of the Treasury, Douglas Dillon, stated before a House Appropriations Sub-Committee on February 16 that Britain is now making a foreign aid effort roughly in scale with that of the United States.

Mr. Dillon is reported as saying that the British, in the past two or three years, have about doubled the amount of money put into the foreign aid field, “so they are footing somewhat less than \$500 million of governmental aid per year now. For England that is roughly comparable on a relative scale to what we are doing.”

- *The British figure for Governmental, non-military aid last year was \$420 million. For the current year the Government has estimated the total of \$500 million.*
- *A series of short reference papers on British aid programs is available free on application to British Information Services.*

Education and Technical Assistance

An Invisible Export to Developing Countries

Capital and trained men are, as everyone knows, the foremost needs of any developing country. One is no good without the other; no stable development is possible without both. It is usual to bracket the whole problem of training under the heading of "technical assistance"; but technical assistance, which conjures up pictures of sunburned young men in Bermuda shorts injecting cattle, advising on crop rotation, or crawling over the massive framework of new steelworks, is only part of the story; men have to be trained not only in technical skills of agriculture or engineering, for example, but in the disciplines of sciences and mathematics, law, economics, language and history. Not technicians only, but educated men, are the prime need if independence and citizenship, bestowed upon or claimed by the newer countries of the world, are to be something more than a parody of democracy.*

*This article deals with the contribution Britain is making towards the provision of a cadre of educated men in the newer countries. The subject cannot be divorced from the whole question of technical assistance, Britain's contribution to which was outlined in a recent White Paper** issued by the Government.*

Amid the din about the urgency of exports, which has had its echoes all over the western world, an occasional small voice has been heard to murmur that "brains are Britain's best export." And, in fact, the invisible export of brains has boomed since 1945. If it has appeared to bulk less important than, for instance, the export of automobiles, it is only because it is not amenable to publication in the monthly trade figures, or to precise statistical assessment as to its value.

The statistics are nonetheless impressive. Before the war, overseas students in Britain were uncounted, but probably did not total, by the most generous estimates, more than 1,500. At the beginning of 1960, they totaled 47,500, and accounted for about one in every ten students at British universities and technical colleges. At London University the ratio is far higher, and nearly one-fifth of all students come from overseas. Britain, it is thought, gives a larger proportion of university places to overseas students than any other country in the world, and gives them although her own students are queueing up to be let in.

*The provision of economic assistance to less-developed countries was outlined in Cmnd. 974, "Assistance from the U.K. for Overseas Development."

**"Technical Assistance from the U.K. for Overseas Development," Cmnd. 1308, 36 cents, plus 5 cent mailing and handling charge.

The education of overseas students in Britain is only one strand of the network of educational assistance which Britain has extended or developed since 1945. This assistance is given both to the Commonwealth and to foreign countries, although, naturally, the Commonwealth takes priority. It includes also the training of teachers from overseas, the secondment of teachers to overseas posts, the development of educational systems in dependent territories, the setting up of universities and colleges for higher education in the colonies and the emergent Commonwealth countries. Educational assistance meshes with a network of schemes of technical training and other assistance extending all over the world.

These two networks have developed gradually, as overseas needs became evident. The Commonwealth Education Conference, held at Oxford in 1959, gave educational aid a further tremendous impetus, inaugurating a number of new schemes in which Britain is playing a leading part.

Overseas Students in Britain

Of the ever-growing number of overseas students in Britain, about two out of three come from the Commonwealth, mainly from the emergent countries of Asia and Africa, and from the West Indies. The greatest number of students from other foreign countries are from Western Europe and the Middle and Far East. Most come to Britain to study for a first degree, or to get specialized professional or other training—more often than not because the opportunities in their home countries are limited. A number of the graduate students come for highly advanced and specialized work. The British Postgraduate Medical Federation in London, for instance, is thought to offer a wider range of research facilities in medicine than is available in any other one city anywhere.

Eventually, the ratio of graduate to undergraduate students will probably increase, as University facilities in the developing countries become available. Students will take their first degree in their home countries, and go to Britain for further research. A large number of scholarships are given by Britain for graduate work, or its equivalent; in particular, the 500 places now available under the Commonwealth Scholarship and Fellowship Plan are earmarked for graduates of distinction of intellect and character who are recommended by their countries of origin and accepted by Britain for graduate courses, usually of two years duration.

In 1959, of nearly 50,000 overseas students in the British higher educational system, 11,000 overseas students were in universities; 12,000 more were taking courses at technical colleges and polytechnic institutes; between 7,000 and 8,000 others were receiving some kind of practical training; then about 6,000 were in private colleges; nearly 6,000 were

student nurses; nearly 3,000 were studying law (for one-third of the world's population follows English Common Law); and about 2,000 were in teacher-training colleges or attached to schools.

Although a fairly large number of scholarships are available, the majority of overseas students pay their own teaching fees and living expenses. But every place at a British university or technical college is largely maintained out of public funds, and the overseas student benefits from this in precisely the same way as the U. K. student.

Any factual survey of overseas students in the United Kingdom tends to make them seem mere learning units. In reality, they are thought of, from the moment they set foot in Britain, as human beings in a strange land, needing help and friendship if their student years are to be happy and successful. The British Council, which is in charge of student welfare, arranges for a large number of them to be met at the port or airport of arrival; it then lays on for them a three-day residential orientation course, in which the mysteries of daily life in Britain—whether the workings of the modern National Health Service or of the ancient water heaters in the bathrooms of some rooming houses—are explained to them. The British Council helps them to find lodgings; it arranges tours and holidays for them in vacation time; it puts them in touch with private families, clubs, etc., so that they can meet more British people; and it has in all the big towns centers which are international clubs with a wide range of activities. Nearly all this work is financed out of public funds.

The Training of Teachers

At the Commonwealth Education Conference in 1959, the desperate shortage of teachers in several Commonwealth countries, and particularly in Africa, was made so evident that urgent action was agreed on. Britain immediately offered to make available in teacher-training institutions up to four hundred places a year for men and women from the countries where the need was greatest. The sacrifice this represents to British education is very real, since England and Wales are short of the minimum of 60,000 teachers required for their own purposes, and there are not sufficient training-institution places to meet all their own needs.

The first batch of more than 350 men and women from 27 countries arrived in Britain last autumn under this Commonwealth Teacher Training Bursary Scheme. The Oxford Conference had decided on the principle of concentrating help at key points, and training trainers of teachers, head teachers and administrators. Thus the majority of bursars are qualified teachers between 25 and 45, who have gone to Britain to acquire specialized knowledge which they can pass on to others when they return

to their own countries. The biggest groups are taking special courses for head teachers, training college lecturers and administrators; but large numbers are studying the teaching of subjects in which there is a shortage of highly-qualified people, such as English as a foreign language, mathematics, science and technical subjects. Although all the older Commonwealth countries have pledged themselves to join in the effort to ease the acute teacher shortage in the emergent countries, only Britain has so far been able to make an offer of training on so large a scale. In the view of Dr. Jha, the Indian director of the Commonwealth Education Liaison Unit, "the Oxford Conference would have been worthwhile had it produced only the Teacher Training Bursary Scheme".

Britain is also making an effort to spare some of her own teachers, so that they can temporarily fill key posts in the emergent Commonwealth countries and in the colonies. For example, when the Government asked for offers from senior teachers to conduct refresher courses for teachers in Nigeria in the summer vacation this year, it received 2,000 applications for only 55 places. Within the next year, it is hoped that the plan for the secondment of teachers will come fully into operation.

Overseas Educational Systems

For many years the British have played an important, if sometimes unplanned, part in the development of educational systems in their colonies. In the earlier days it fell to the Christian missions to open schools, and many of these are still excellent centers of education, staffed by teachers from Britain. Later the U.K. Colonial Education Service helped to build up primary and secondary educational systems, its members serving as administrators, inspectors and secondary school teachers. More recently, and particularly since the war, Britain has undertaken the urgent task of setting up universities and colleges of higher education in colonies eventually to become self-governing states. Opportunities for higher education are among the first requirements of independence. Without educated men statehood-citizenship becomes a farce. There must be responsible politicians, administrators and civil servants.

In the development of the universities of the emergent countries, British universities have given richly out of their own experience. All are represented on the Inter-University Council for Higher Education Overseas, which makes available many forms of help to developing universities. Perhaps most important of all has been, and continues to be, the part played by the University of London. When the younger English universities were growing up, their students took the external examinations of London University, which allowed them to sit for its examina-

tions, although not studying under its teachers. London examinations are uncomfortably stiff, and the external system means that the younger provincial universities had to aim at a high standard from the outset. Now this same system has been adopted by the younger universities of the emergent Commonwealth, although they are associated with the London University in a "special relationship", which allows them to modify their courses to suit local conditions, while still preparing their students for London degrees. By now some of these overseas universities have begun to grant their own degrees, as do all the English provincial universities today.

At the same time, several colleges providing advanced professional, technical and commercial education have been set up by grants from Colonial Development and Welfare Funds, and examining bodies and professional institutions in Britain have helped them to plan their syllabuses and their examinations.

All these activities concern education in its more formal and restricted sense. But a vast amount of less formal education is also carried on by British agencies all over the world. The British Council maintains comprehensive libraries in a large number of countries, and arranges lectures and exhibitions. The government has recently launched a new low-priced books scheme, by which books and journals are supplied to educational institutions and students in the Commonwealth at reduced prices. The British Broadcasting Corporation provides educational material for re-broadcasting by local stations, and gives English lessons by radio to speakers of forty languages.

Private Enterprise and Education

Meanwhile, innumerable British private firms are adding their contribution to overseas education, and not to superficial technical training only, in both Commonwealth territories and foreign countries. A few examples can be quoted. There are the eight technical training schools maintained by a private company in West Africa; the engineering faculty at Beirut University equipped jointly by several British firms; the equipment for the new Delhi College of Engineering, provided at a cost of £270,000 by British industry—which also seconded a high-ranking executive to organize practical training there; or the educational facilities for all, from children upwards, established by rubber planters in Malaya.

In Britain itself, the contribution of private industry is large. It is estimated that every year about 9,000 people from overseas, ranging from skilled craftsmen to graduate technologists, obtain further training or experience in British industrial and commercial firms.

The Edinburgh International Festival

by
Robert Ponsonby

When early in 1946 it was announced that Edinburgh was planning a great international Festival of the Arts, beginning in 1947, the late Sir Thomas Beecham (who happened to be conducting in Glasgow at the time) prophesied that it would be “a perfect fiasco.” There were other Cassandras. Most of them took the same line: Edinburgh had no great tradition in music or the theatre; its climate was not good enough; it was too far away. Others said that Festivals should be allowed to grow up naturally and should not be forced into flower by violent transplantation. A few very proper people maintained that, so soon after the war, Edinburgh’s money would be better spent on some of the essentials of life rather than on a downright luxury appealing only to the “highbrows” of the community.

Mr. Robert Ponsonby was Director of the Edinburgh Festival from 1956 to 1960, the third director since the Festival started in 1947. He has been succeeded by the Earl of Harewood, cousin of the Queen.

Mr. Ponsonby is at present advising on the establishment of a Festival centre of the arts in the Bahamas.

Fortunately, the planners of the Festival—Mr. and Mrs. John Christie, founders of the Glyndebourne Opera, their General Manager, Rudolf Bing, who is now Manager of the Metropolitan Opera in New York, Harvey Wood, director of the British Council in Edinburgh, and the Lord Provost of the day, Sir John Falconer—were undeterred. They continued with their planning, not without difficulty and considerable opposition. They “sold” the idea to the City Corporation, from whom they obtained a grant of £20,000. They obtained similar grants from the Arts Council of Great Britain and local backers and, having scraped together a reserve fund of £60,000, they committed themselves beyond the possibility of withdrawal. Concert halls and theatres were rented, artists engaged, publicity distributed and—finally—tickets sold. Before that first day of ticket sales, in April 1947, no one had any idea what to expect: orders could have been so small as to force them to cancel the entire project. It must have been a nerve-wracking occasion. What in

fact happened was that the box office was besieged and submerged by the sheer volume of the applications. The first Edinburgh International Festival was already an undoubted financial success. This was fortunate because the organizers had had to commit themselves in advance to a second Festival in 1948.

There were, I think, three chief reasons for this overwhelming response. First, Edinburgh is an extremely beautiful city. Its focal point is the castle, which is at least as strikingly dramatic as Salzburg's. From the castle, down the hill toward the sea, runs the Royal Mile, a cobbled street packed with historical associations, at the foot of which lies the Royal Palace of Holyrood. To the north, across Princes Street and its gardens, are the quiet squares and crescents of Robert Adam's "New" Town; to the south, the University. Edinburgh has its own "mountain," Arthur's Seat, from which, on a clear day, the Highlands can be seen. But, for Festival purposes, it has special advantages: it is small (the population is less than 500,000) and its center is compact so that the atmosphere of a Festival can be "felt." Finally, it has four good theatres and two excellent concert halls.

Second, the program offered in that first year was of the highest international quality and included foreign groups and individual artists who had not been to Britain since 1939 or earlier. The orchestras included the Vienna Philharmonic, under Bruno Walter, and L'Orchestre des Concerts Colonne, under Paul Paray. Opera was presented by Glyndebourne, ballet by Sadler's Wells (now the Royal Ballet). Theatre was in the hands of Louis Jouvet and the Old Vic, who presented plays by Molière and Shakespeare respectively. Among the soloists were Kathleen Ferrier, Elisabeth Schumann, Michelangeli, and a Festival Piano Quartet whose members were Joseph Szigeti, William Primrose, Pierre Fournier and Artur Schnabel. The array of talent was dazzling.

Third—and perhaps most important—the Festival was launched with an audacity and with a sense of purpose which could not but appeal to a public who, two years before, had emerged from the most terrible war of all time and who were thirsty for that combination of "festivity" and the arts which are the two main ingredients of a Festival. The audacity of the enterprise lay in its launching so soon after the war (when food and clothes rationing were still in force) and in the fact that it already comprised opera, concerts, theatre and ballet. Its sense of purpose was memorably expressed by the Lord Provost, Sir John Falconer, during whose term of office it was launched. Sir John said:

"The idea is a new one for Edinburgh, but I feel confident we will succeed in establishing our fair city as one of the pre-eminent Euro-

pean Festival Centres. To succeed, we require the help and co-operation of lovers of art the world over . . . We wish to provide the world with a Centre where, year after year, all that is best in music, drama, and the visual arts can be seen and heard amidst ideal surroundings. Edinburgh will be wholly given up to Festival affairs . . .”

Sir John, who died six years later, lived to see his vision fulfilled. The Festival in fact established itself as “one of the pre-eminent European Festival Centres” in extraordinarily few years.

Credit for this achievement must go in the first place to Rudolf Bing, the Festival Society’s first Artistic Director. Before the war Bing had been General Manager of the Glyndebourne Opera which had been founded in 1934 by Mr. and Mrs. John Christie at their beautiful home in the Sussex Downs. It is said that Mrs. Christie—herself a distinguished opera singer—and Bing conceived the idea of the Festival while in Edinburgh with a touring production of *The Beggar’s Opera* during the early part of the war; however that may be, it was they—together with John Christie—who revived the idea in 1945 and who, through the good offices of Harvey Wood of the British Council in Edinburgh, persuaded Sir John Falconer and his City Council to adopt it. Bing became Artistic Director of the Festival Society, meanwhile retaining his position as General Manager of the Glyndebourne Opera. This link was of extreme value to the Festival Society in its early years as, apart from Bing’s services as their director, they were able to count upon Glyndebourne to provide their opera seasons.

Bing’s greatest achievement, however, was to forge out the pattern of the Festival—a pattern which has remained virtually unchanged over nearly fifteen years—to insist upon the highest possible quality in performance and to give it a strongly international flavor. These characteristics have been the key to its continuing success and neither Ian Hunter (who succeeded Bing) nor I (who succeeded Hunter) dared or wished to change them. The only changes which have taken place have been the addition of certain features not originally envisaged. Thus, the famous Military Tattoo on the Castle Esplanade established itself, in 1950, as a Festival “must,” while, in the same year, the first of a series of magnificent Art Exhibitions was presented. The first was devoted to Rembrandt. In the following years there were exhibitions of paintings by Degas, Renoir, Cezanne, Gauguin, Braque and Monet. Other memorable exhibitions were those devoted to Diaghilev, Byzantine Art and the German Expressionist painters.

The inauguration and establishment of the fine arts as an important, regular feature of the Festival was largely due to the enterprise of my

predecessor, Ian Hunter. When I succeeded him, in 1956, there was little that the Festival did not already comprise, but I added as two new features the reading of verse and prose and, as a *bonne bouche* for those threatened with cultural indigestion, a series of late night performances, avowedly designed for relaxation. Among the performers who appeared under the first heading were Peggy Ashcroft, Edith Evans, John Gielgud and John Betjeman; under the latter, Anna Russell, Beatrice Lillie, Flanders and Swann and Les Frères Jacques.

No one who has not attended the Festival can have any idea of its extraordinary concentration of events. During a three-week period overlapping August and September something like 250,000 tickets are available for sale (and between 70% and 80% of them are generally sold). Each weekday morning there is a recital of chamber music; each weekday evening there are performances of opera, ballet, three plays, the Tattoo (sometimes two performances), a late-night entertainment and a symphony concert. Most of the theatres have two matinées each week and on Saturdays, as a result, there may be as many as thirteen official Festival performances. Sundays are days of relative rest, as only concerts are offered. It is believed that at least 100,000 visitors come to the city for the Festival and, in 1960, upward of 450 journalists signed the visitors book at the Festival Press Bureau.

Surprisingly enough, about half of all the tickets sold are bought by the Scots themselves; of the remainder about 20% are sold in England, 30% overseas, a high proportion of these visitors coming from the United States and Canada. The Festival artists are even more international. In the fourteen years of the Festival's history there have been orchestras from France, Austria, Italy, Germany, Denmark, Holland, Switzerland, the U.S.S.R. and the U.S.A.; opera companies from Germany, Italy, Sweden and Spain; ballet or dance companies from France, Spain, Denmark, Yugoslavia, Finland, Sweden, India, Japan and the U.S.A.; theatre companies from France, Germany, Italy and Canada; and individual artists from throughout the world.

Edinburgh during the Festival is therefore an exhilarating—and an exhausting—place. There are few visitors who do not wish to return to it and, if the pace of the Festival itself becomes too hot for them, Scotland—all of which is easily accessible and most of which is quite unspoiled—has many other sources of refreshment to offer, not least its *vin du pays* which, like the Edinburgh Festival, is perhaps the best in the world. Sir Thomas Beecham (who conducted at Edinburgh on a number of memorable occasions) would, I believe, have endorsed both aspects of this proposition—despite his earlier prophesy that the Festival would fail.

In 1945 Britain was faced with the need to provide at least 2¼ million extra school places by the end of 1959. In the event 3 million additional places have been provided without recourse to part-time schooling or shift teaching. New designs for school buildings have perhaps been the key factor in this successful effort.

A Revolution in School Building

Nearly half the children in Britain over 11 years of age receiving public education are in school buildings put up since the war. To meet the demand a revolution has been called for in the design and building of schools. Some of the fruits are obvious to the eye in the buildings themselves with their compact shapes, their modern materials and the liberal use of glass to give light to all the rooms, but far more than outward appearances are involved in this revolution which is based on a radical re-thinking of the whole problem of school building.

A number of factors made a new approach to school building a matter of great urgency. One factor was the post war "bulge" in the sheer number of children. Another factor was the desperate shortage of building materials after the war and therewith the need to control all building, whether for private or public purposes, yet another factor was the decision, taken as far back as 1944, to raise the school-leaving age first from 14 to 15 and ultimately from 15 to 16.

The minimum school-leaving age became 15 in 1947 and this alone made a serious increase in the demand on school accommodation. The years 1944 to 1949 saw a particularly high birth rate and this, again, foreshadowed an increasing demand for school places. The problem was complicated by the re-siting of a great deal of industry in new towns and the building of large numbers of industrial housing estates. This also created a pressing demand for more new schools. There was too, a war-time legacy of schools destroyed by bombing.

The estimate in 1949 was that between then and 1961, 2,250,000 new school places would have to be provided. On top of this, there was the need to modernize or rebuild large numbers of old schools, some of which had been in existence since the beginning of the century and earlier. They were not only depressing but inefficient.

It was against this background that Britain started the new school-building program which is now in full swing. The aim is eventually to

“tailor” the whole of the country’s schools to meet the educational needs of the second half of the 20th century and, to do this, a completely new approach to the problem has gradually been evolved.

This has meant a new and scientific appraisal of the actual needs of the children themselves and of their teachers, a very full investigation of the possibilities both of new and of traditional building materials, of pre-fabrication and other methods of building construction, and, even to mention here just one detail, a radical reconsideration of the design of such items of equipment as desks, chairs, wash-basins and shelving. The aim was to provide the best not only for now but for the future. How far that aim could be achieved obviously depended ultimately on the money available and on the costs of individual projects and of the building plan as a whole. The financial yardstick, therefore, became that of “cost per place.”

Briefly, the “cost per place” system works in this way. At the present time the Ministry of Education prescribes a maximum cost per place of £154 (\$431) for primary schools and £264 (\$739) for secondary schools. This figure is the cost of the school buildings together with built-in furniture and fittings and with the associated playgrounds.

The actual design and buildings of the schools is not the responsibility of the Ministry but of the various local authorities throughout the country. They have to find the money and put the work in hand, but each local project has to be first approved by the Ministry to ensure that it comes within the “cost per place” limit. The central design and building problem is thus to get the best possible value for money within the financial limits laid down. The re-thinking of the design of Britain’s schools starts from here, and it has led most of the older ideas of school planning being called into question.

To give a general idea of the new trends in design it is necessary to look back to some of the schools which were considered to be advanced in plan in the 1930s, because these were the plan that post-World War II school architects inherited. These schools were built on what is known as the “finger” system. Class-rooms and practical rooms were disposed in rows with a corridor on one side. Usually several rows were built parallel with each other and set, like fingers, at right-angles to the “palm,” which contained the assembly-hall, the offices, cloakrooms and lavatories. The buildings were usually of one storey only.

The “finger” plan had been a great improvement on earlier schools but in the light of the strict economies necessary after World War II it was seen that it was not the most economic method of planning and not well adapted for use under the limitations of the “cost per place” system.

For one thing, it led to an extravagant use of floor space, particularly in the corridors; It was shown in some cases that as much space had been given up to corridors as was devoted to teaching purposes.

Starting from this point, architects began to look for a type of planning which would be more economical in its total area and yet would give a more generous amount of space for the actual classrooms. From this, in turn, there evolved the idea of the dual use of space. It was realized, for instance, that many of the corridors were unnecessary, because the only large-scale movements of pupils are from the class-room to the assembly-hall for music, drama or physical education, or for the school lunch.

The new classrooms were therefore planned in such a way that only short corridors or circulation spaces were necessary between the rooms and the main hall. In some cases it was found possible to make the corridors part of the actual class-rooms by making the wall between class-room and corridor of sliding or folding sections. This meant, in effect, that the actual teaching space could be varied whenever the particular activity in the class demanded it.

Lunches at school are a feature of education in Britain and this means that some form of dining space has to be found in all schools. A separate dining hall is in use for at most two hours a day and, as such, particularly on a "cost per place" basis, it does not earn its keep. Good planning has resulted in the quite satisfactory dual use of space by designing the entrance or assembly hall in such a way that it can also be used for meals.

These and similar modifications in the planning stage constitute a minor revolution in themselves. They have, in fact, led to one of the most important achievements of post-war school building through which the total area of the newer schools has been reduced by nearly 40 per cent while the actual area of useful teaching space has remained unreduced or even perhaps increased slightly. This is one outstanding example of getting the best value for money under the "cost per place" system.

Apart from problems of over-all planning to make the best possible use of space, a tremendous amount of thought and research is being put into many other details of the buildings. The objective is not merely to maintain previously-existing physical standards for the pupils but to improve them and one important consideration here is that of the lighting of the classrooms. Perhaps it is here more than anywhere else that the outside view of the newer schools differs from that of older school buildings. In the former, one is instantly struck by the large proportion of the walls that is given up to windows. In some of the older schools windows

were comparatively small and were sited high in the walls, presumably so that the children in class should not be distracted from their work by looking out of them.

To find the best system of lighting, and yet keep within the statutory "cost per place," has not been easy. Excellent lighting could be got by building high rooms with big windows on one side, but this would considerably increase the over-all costs of the building. To overcome this problem while keeping ceilings at a reasonable height as many rooms as possible are planned with two external walls each with its window spaces and, of course, great attention has been given to the painting and decoration of the walls and ceilings to get the best possible reflection of light.

It should not be assumed from what has been written that the whole countryside in Britain is being dotted with pre-fabricated schools all made to the same pattern. This is far from the case. Many different ideas have been worked out and tried and more are still being evolved.

The various local authorities are free to draw on these ideas and adapt them to their own special requirements as long as what they propose can be done at the requisite "cost per place." In some areas, for instance, it may pay a group of local authorities to get together and agree on a common plan for schools which can be built of prefabricated units. This is clearly only an economic proposition when contractors can be given a sufficiently large firm order to make it worth their while to put the units into production.

Although the responsibility for school building rests with the local authorities, the Ministry of Education itself does a great deal more than just hold a watching brief and keep an eye open to see that the "cost per place" is not exceeded. From time to time, in conjunction with some particular local authority, it carries out pilot projects in actual school building to assess the value of various building materials.

In one such project carried out in the London area particular attention was paid, for instance, to problems of heating, acoustics, lighting, color and equipment because it was felt that the comfort of the children was even more affected by these than by the shape and formal planning of the rooms.

For this school a great deal of work was done on scientific problems of equipment design, even to the extent of taking a large number of sample measurements of children to arrive at the best dimensions for tables, shelves and the like. The aim was to take a further step forward in "tailoring" Britain's schools and their equipment to meet the needs of the children who use them.

Britain and the Commonwealth

Some Personal Reflections

by

Sir Oliver Franks

Recent developments in international affairs have brought increasingly to the attention of all of us the diversity which lies behind the apparent unity of the term "The Commonwealth." We in Britain have come to see more clearly than before that the change from "Empire" to "Commonwealth" was of more than lexical significance. This change was initiated in 1931 with the passage by the United Kingdom Parliament of the Statute of Westminster in which the Commonwealth nations were described as "autonomous communities . . . , equal in status, . . . freely associated as members of the British Commonwealth of Nations." The nations of the Commonwealth are free and equal, independent nations. We all know that but it was impressed upon me more clearly when I became Ambassador in Washington in 1948. On the day I arrived there, the group at the station to meet me included the Chief of Protocol from the American State Department, British Embassy staff, and seven Commonwealth Ambassadors. I suddenly realized that there were already six representatives of His Majesty in Washington, as well as the Indian Ambassador whose Government recognized the King as Head of the Commonwealth. From one point of view, and it was a real one, I was the junior Ambassador of His Majesty in the United States.

I have another recollection. You will remember the visit paid to Canada by Princess Elizabeth with the Duke of Edinburgh before she became the Queen. The Princess was invited by the President of the United States to come to Washington. At first I assumed without thought that a British Princess was coming: but my distinguished Canadian colleague, the late Hume Wrong, made it clear to me that in Canada the Princess was a Canadian Princess and in Canada's view a Canadian

Sir Oliver Franks was British Ambassador at Washington from 1948 to 1952. Since that time he has been Chairman of Lloyds Bank. After holding senior posts in the Government during and after the War, Sir Oliver was called upon in 1946 to be Provost of the Queen's College, Oxford. It was announced in April of this year that he will return to academic life at the end of the year to be head of Worcester College, Oxford.

Princess would soon be crossing the border. I realized, as I had never done before, that the Princess was not only a Princess in the United Kingdom, but could in a sense be regarded also as the Princess of other Commonwealth countries.

Before I came to Washington my ideas about this independence of the Commonwealth countries were rather negative. I knew the other members were no longer dependent on Britain—they were free to decide whether to stay in the Commonwealth or not. But now I learned that this independence had a very positive character. The other members each had their own foreign policy, political and economic. Canada, Australia, India, or Pakistan: the Government of the United States listened with great attention to their views. At different times these nations exercised real influence in the formation of American policy. In fact, Britain belonged to a club, each member of which was positively shaping its own destiny.

Again, we all know that the Commonwealth is a unity. But in Washington I saw how that unity worked. Every fortnight, except in the summer, the eight Ambassadors of the Commonwealth met in our Embassy to exchange views and consult informally together. We discussed everything: the movement of affairs in the world, the latest phase of American policy—and the opinions of our different countries about them. We did not mince words. Even difficulties between individual members, like Kashmir, were regularly talked over by all of us, including India and Pakistan, with conviction but without heat. Further the discussions took place between like-minded people who shared a common political tradition. No one had to insist on the freedom of his country because

The Commonwealth Prime Ministers' Conference

The Prime Ministers of these 12 countries, comprising one quarter of the world's population, met in London March 8-17, 1961 when they took definitive stands on two historic issues. They agreed on an unequivocal definition of disarmament requirements, and they braved the subject of racial discrimination—with immediate repercussions in the form of South Africa's decision to leave the association.

Cyprus, under the leadership of Archbishop Makarios who had fought Britain so long, petitioned for and was accorded membership of the Commonwealth, whereupon the Archbishop came over to join in the proceedings. The admission of Sierra Leone, which became an independent nation on April 27, was also arranged.

nobody ever questioned it. We had a common approach. We accepted common standards. We had forbearance, which is essential between members of a continuing club when they differ.

What did I get out of this experience? A new view of the power and positive influence of the Commonwealth countries in the world. A better conception of what the equality and independence of our partners means to them and to us. I could see that any notion of Britain as a mother with a number of sons, now all legally of age but still a trifle undergraduateish in outlook, is totally mistaken. We are dealing with equals. They expect to be consulted on matters of common interest before we act and not told about it afterwards. If we forget for a moment and act in terms of an older relationship, the reminder that we get is quick and unambiguous.

But all this is a static analysis of the Commonwealth. It gives no clue to why it works or what are the factors which can hold it together and make it work in the future. What is it, in the expressive American phrase, that makes the Commonwealth tick? The backward glance of reminiscence suggests that the clue is to be found in common origins and common history. Some nations of the Commonwealth are linked to Britain by kinship, others by long association, all by sentiment. Above all, there is the Crown embodying the principles of continuity and unity within the Commonwealth and as such accepted by all the partners. For most of them it is more. It is a shared institution, standing high above the waves of change and political controversy.

These are high arguments. No one who follows the royal tours of the Queen and her husband can doubt the supreme importance to the Commonwealth of the loyal affection which centers on the Queen wherever she goes. But there is no disloyalty in saying that this alone is not a full explanation of what makes the Commonwealth work. The mistake would be to expect more of the Crown than can possibly be given. And much the same holds good of the ties of sentiment, real though they are, and the facts of kinship and contact from which they flow.

Such links can only hold if they are based on links of another order in the economic and political sphere; these other links, though not sufficient to give the Commonwealth its peculiar strength and quality, are necessary for its successful working and are themselves very strong. Britain is a great natural market for the foodstuffs and raw materials produced by the other Commonwealth nations. Britain sends in return what countries actively developing their resources naturally need, manufactured goods and capital. In a prosperous year we export to our fellow-members goods to the value of near £1,000 million. But the political advantages are equally direct and simple; for the other members as well

as for Britain. Each becomes more, has more influence on the course of world affairs, a more effective say in the great political and strategic issues of our time, more opportunity of effective action in international efforts to increase trade and raise the standard of living, because of belonging to the Commonwealth. The advantages are not one way: they are mutual. That is why they offer a basis on which to build for a long future.

What makes the Commonwealth work is a complex of motives, in which each element reinforces the others. The elements relate to very different qualities and needs in human nature. For this reason in combination they are both strong and supple. Perhaps that is why some people in Britain go to an extreme. They realize that Britain cannot 'go it' alone in the present world: they see, too, that the prospect of her continued greatness is bound up with the Commonwealth. Why should not Britain make her great aim the strengthening of the Commonwealth, and in its ever closer unity find the full realization of her inheritance? They have a vision of Britain and the Commonwealth, friendly with all but dependent on none, finding together all the strength they need.

This may be an attractive picture. I shall not stop to argue that. The point is that things cannot turn out that way. This is certain: it is not a matter of opinion. The first proof is in the existence of the Atlantic Pact, acclaimed the corner-stone of our defense by Conservative and Labor Governments alike. Two members of the Commonwealth have thought it right and necessary to combine for the purposes of common defense with the United States to the west of the Atlantic and with western Euro-

South Africa to Leave Commonwealth

"... Following the plebiscite in October 1960 ... it was desired by the Union Government that South Africa should remain within the Commonwealth as a republic.

"In connection with this application the meeting also discussed, with the consent of the Prime Minister of South Africa, the racial policy of the Union Government.

"The Prime Minister of South Africa informed the other Prime Ministers this evening that in the light of the views expressed on behalf of the member governments and the indication of their future intentions regarding racial policy in the Union Government, he had decided to withdraw his application for South Africa's continuing membership of the Commonwealth as a republic."

Communique of March 15, 1961

Commonwealth Prime Ministers' Conference:

pean nations across the Channel. The combination is long-term, not short-term. In this divided and dangerous world Britain and Canada know that their fortunes are bound up with those of nations outside the Commonwealth.

It is worth taking the matter a little further. I am clear that a policy of going it alone would split and destroy the Commonwealth, if it were ever submitted seriously for decision. It would be unacceptable to both the Asian and the western members. In the last few years it has been obvious that India is devoting sustained effort to cultivating friendship with its far-eastern neighbors. India would accept no proposal or commitment which would prevent or limit this broad policy. And Pakistan has links which it hopes to strengthen with the Moslem peoples of the Middle and Near East. Any proposal likely to thwart a natural ambition to become the leader of a group of middle-eastern states would not be entertained.

Equally, the western members would never consent. Think of Canada in relation to the United States: 3,000 miles of frontier, a population about equal to that of New York State, common defense problems, strong ties in finance, trade, and industry, an old enduring and reciprocated friendship. Think of American participation in the development of Canadian oil and the iron ore of Labrador, the joint interest in the St. Lawrence Waterway. The future of Canada, while all her own, must be linked to that of the United States.

Then there is the attitude of Australia and New Zealand. They could not do without their Pacific neighbor, the United States: they have said so in the Anzus Pact. Let us be frank: it surprised and pained many people in Britain that Australia and New Zealand should enter into such an understanding with the United States but without us. This is precisely the sort of issue in Commonwealth affairs which we need to look at with eyes unclouded by older memories.

In 1950 the North Koreans launched their deliberate attack. Nations whose strategic interests lay immediately in the south Pacific had to revise their ideas. At the same time a liberal peace treaty was being negotiated with the Japanese who less than ten years before fought their way to the outskirts of Australia. Australians and New Zealanders both felt a new urgency about defense. They remembered the second world war and the collapse of preconceived defense plans when Singapore fell. It was the American armed forces which checked Japan. Australia and New Zealand saw that the first power in the Pacific was the United States. When the Korean war made prospects across the Pacific uncertain and insecure, it was natural for these two Pacific members of the Common-

wealth to enter into understandings about the common defense with the United States. The Anzus Pact acknowledges a vital strategic relationship.

The other nations of the Commonwealth are in the same case as Britain. Our future, like our past, is bound up with that of our neighbors, in western Europe and the United States. The evidence of two world wars and of the Atlantic Pact is final. The strength and vitality of the Commonwealth does not lie in the separation of its members from their neighbors. It is not that sort of exclusive club. It is its nature to reach out, not to retreat like a snail into its shell. Rightly conceived, the connections of interest and policy which each Commonwealth nation enjoys with its neighbors are a source of strength to the whole, not of weakness. They contribute to the effective working of the Commonwealth because they increase the understanding and the influence of each member in its region. And between them the members cover five continents of the world.

The Independence of Sierra Leone

On April 27 Sierra Leone became an independent sovereign state within the Commonwealth. Sierra Leone is the tenth former British dependency to achieve independence since 1947.

The founding of Sierra Leone was the most striking manifestation of the strong humanitarian impulses which (it is too easily forgotten) first took the British to Africa. The original settlement was devised by British philanthropists in 1787 as a home for freed slaves.

In 1807, when the British Parliament declared the slave trade illegal, the Colony became a base from which the Act could be enforced. A naval squadron was stationed off the coast to intercept slave ships. From 1818 when the first slave ship was condemned and its cargo freed, hundreds of slaves were freed each year and in some years thousands, most of them remaining in Sierra Leone. Today the population of Sierra Leone is about 2,400,000 of whom all but about 3,000 are African. The capital city of Freetown, with one of the best natural harbors in the world, has a population of 88,000.

At least eight out of ten of the population depend on the land for their livelihood; but the country's main source of wealth is derived from mining, particularly from diamonds and iron ore. External trade has increased from £9.5 million in 1948 to £45.5 million in 1959 and Government revenue from £2.6 million to nearly £11.5 million in the same period.

From Britain has come most of the external capital for the country's development. With independence Britain has promised Sierra Leone an additional \$21 million in loans and grants to see the new country "on its way."

The British Budget, 1961-1962

The Budget message of April 17 and the tax changes it promised clearly reflect the Government's determination to keep the national finances in good order and the pound strong. There are dramatic changes in taxation, in sum amounting to a net increase of £68 million for the fiscal year, for which also a massive current surplus of £506 million is planned; enough to meet almost all the capital account ("below the line") deficit which would otherwise be met by Government borrowing.

With demand at home expected to rise this year, the Government has planned a counter-inflationary Budget which moderates the growth in personal consumption (through increased taxes) and leaves room for increased exports and investment.

The most novel feature is that the Government has taken powers to vary—upwards or downwards—excise duties and purchase tax. Also, for the first time, a tax is imposed on the employers of labor to discourage the "hoarding" of workers and, indirectly, to encourage new capital equipment. This has been urged by many British experts for some time as a way of coping with the very real labor shortage which has persisted since the War.

The Chancellor (Mr. Selwyn Lloyd) said that with these weapons: *"We shall be better able to act by quick and flexible fiscal action in the interval between this and the next Budget, thus reducing dependence on regulation by monetary and credit restrictions."*

• Revenue and Expenditure

The total of relief and new taxes results in a net increase in taxation for the coming year of £68 million.

The Budget outturn for the past year 1960-61 (ending March) and the 1961-62 estimates:—

(£ million)	1960-61 Original estimate	1960-61 Actual outturn	1961-62 Estimate
Revenue	5,980	5,934	6,508
Expenditure	5,676	5,787	6,002
CURRENT SURPLUS	304	147	506
capital lending etc.	622	541	575
OVERALL DEFICIT	318	394	69

• *The United Kingdom Economy*

1960 was a year of very full activity—rapidly rising real personal income, high saving and rising investment. On the other side there was a dangerously high pressure of demand on productive resources, signs of increasing costs and prices, the failure of exports to increase sufficiently and the consequent serious weakness in the balance of payments. The undoubted prosperity did not rest on a sufficiently secure foundation.

It was expected that imports would fall and export opportunities improve in 1961. There would, however, be strong expansionary forces working on home demand, from private and public consumption and rising investment.

The Chancellor said that a judgment on 1961-62 should not be formed without taking into account some of the longer-term trends in the economy. Even allowing for the U.K.'s world-wide political and economic responsibilities, there were some things wrong in our approach to economic problems. We were in danger of trying to do too much at the same time, with insufficient reserves of capacity and insufficient supplies of skilled labor and of scientists and technologists. The tax system had features inimical to enterprise. Our industrial practices were in some cases inadequate and out-of-date.

The purposes of this Budget, he said, should be to restrain the growth of consumption, continue to encourage investment and leave room for increased exports; to improve the methods of regulating the economy; and to provide additional incentives to effort and initiative. Above all, everything done must help to maintain confidence in the £ sterling.

• *Particular Measures*

Surtax payable at £4,000 (\$11,200) a year instead of (hitherto) £2,000 a year. But allowances for earned income will relieve earned incomes up to \$5,000 a year of any surtax liability. Cost to the Government £83 million (\$232.4 million) in a full year.

(Surtax is applied at rates from 10 to 50 per cent, different rates being applied to different slices of income. The 50 per cent rate has been applied only to that part of income in excess of \$42,000).

Corporation Profits Increased from 12½ % per cent to 15 per cent. Yield to the Government £70 million (\$196 million).

Revenue Duties and Purchase Tax In order to stimulate or restrain spending by the British public, the Government will be empowered to direct at any time in the course of the year a special surcharge or special rebate applied to *revenue duties and purchase taxes*. A ten per cent variation on existing charges would be allowed. This would give the Govern-

ment a variable control over an important range of consumers' expenditure. The main imported items to be affected would be alcohol, gasoline and tobacco. Duties on motor cars are not affected by this new power nor are items involving existing international obligations. This power is taken for one year only.

A Payroll Tax "A second surcharge on employers analogous to a payroll tax" is introduced with the object of securing economy in the use of manpower and to encourage investment in labor-saving equipment. The maximum surcharge would be 4 shillings (56 cents) an employee per week. This could yield as much as £200 million (\$560 million) in a full year (this tax has to be understood against the background of a chronic labor shortage in Britain).

Auto Taxes The cost of auto licenses will be raised by 20 per cent (from \$35 to \$42). The new tax, covering all motor vehicles except ambulances, invalid carriages, buses and coaches, comes into effect at once. It should yield £26 million (\$72.8 million) in a full year.

Duty on heavy oils reinstated at rate of 2-3 cents a gallon. Yield in a full year \$140 million.

• *Other changes*

- In future, under double tax agreements, the Government will recognize *overseas tax concessions* given to British firms in assessing U.K. income tax liability of these firms.
- Taxpayers' *allowances for National Insurance contributions* will be raised from \$36 to \$50 at a cost to the Exchequer of \$42 million in a year.
- *Bills of exchange* will be subject to a fixed duty of 2½ cents instead of, as hitherto, being taxed on their value.
- There will be a retroactive *tax relief on compensation* paid to the victims of Nazi persecution.
- A duty of 10 per cent is imposed on charges made *by television companies* for the insertion of advertisements.
- *Cars as a business expense*. 12½ per cent instead of 9 per cent of the vehicle's original value may be written off for tax purposes but the value of the car is limited to \$5,600.
- Rules for *expense allowances* generally will be revised to provide more concise information to the authorities.

The diagram opposite illustrates the pattern of Revenue and how it was spent in the last financial year (1960-1961).

TAXES ON INCOME AND CAPITAL 1s. 10d.

Income Tax and Capital Gains Tax
on income and capital gains

Tax on Profits of Companies
on profits of companies

Death Duties
on estates

TAXES ON SPENDING 8s. 10d.

Tobacco Duties
on tobacco

Alcohol Duties
on alcohol

Television and Betting Duties
on television and betting

Excise Duties
on excisable goods

On and Motor Duties
on motor vehicles and motor fuel

Other
Stamp Duties, etc.

NON-TAX REVENUE 7d.

Monies from the sale of
Government stocks and bonds

TOTAL 25,262 million 51. 0. 0

EXPENDITURE

The following Government expenditure is shown in this poster

SURPLUS 1s.

NATIONAL DEBT 2s. 3d.

National Debt
Interest on Government securities
including National Savings Bonds and
War Bonds

DEFENCE 5s. 5d.

Defence 118s. million

SOCIAL SERVICES, SUBSIDIES, ETC. 7s. 11d.

Health Services
and other social services

Personal Payments
Family Allowance, etc.; Pensions, National
Assurance, Government Post Office
and other Social Contributions
Business and other grants paid out
of National Insurance Fund

Agricultural Support
Subsidies etc.

Assistance to Local Services
e.g. Education, Housing, etc. (not
shown in this poster)

OTHER SERVICES AND PAYMENTS 3s. 5d.

Miscellaneous
Interest on National Loans, etc.
Post Office, etc. and other payments
to the Public, etc. (not shown in
this poster)

TOTAL (including surplus) 27,262 million 51. 0. 0

* This surplus, together with money borrowed by the Government, is used for such things as loans to nationalised industries and to the Post Office, repayments of post-war credits and loans for colonial development. This kind of spending which is mostly in the nature of loans or repayments, is called "below-the-line" and is not shown in this poster.

This poster is based on the figures laid before Parliament on Budget Day, April 4th, 1960

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The Chamber of Commerce of the United States in its booklet "U. S. Balance of Payments Position," states:—

"The injury which substantial curtailment of imports inflicts on our nation through reduced gains of specialization and trade, uneconomic allocation of resources, lower levels of living, and slower rates of growth, far outweighs such minor improvements to our balance of payments position as it may purchase."

In the same publication, the Chamber of Commerce also states:—

"It would be a great mistake to assume that we can bar foreign goods from our shores without inviting retaliation in kind."

Two-Way Trade

No country can be really prosperous without a healthy two-way trade.

It is true that due to overseas expenditures, the United States has recently experienced an adverse balance of payments and a resulting outflow of gold. The United States balance of international payments, which is the net difference of all United States transactions with the rest of the world, has been on the debit side since 1958. But this is not the case with the U.S. balance of trade, a major item in the balance of payments. It is the difference between United States imports and United States exports of goods and services. This balance has not been adverse at any time since 1920. Usually the U.S. manages to sell more than it buys. This has been the case in the last year.

Last year, 1960, United States exports were approximately \$20 billion; imports \$15 billion only, leaving a net balance of \$5 billion in favor of the United States. This large export figure of \$20 billion represents employment for workers in a variety of industries and a high standard of living for countless families.

If overseas countries are to continue to purchase from the United States at this rate, they in turn must be free to earn the means of payment, by means of their *own* exports to the American market. They must earn the necessary dollars. It is a simple fact that if the United States decreases her imports of foreign products then her own export trade will also dwindle.

Between 1946 and 1960 Britain imported goods to the value of \$13.9 billion from the United States but only exported merchandise to the value of \$7.6 billion to the American market, leaving a balance in favor of the United States of \$6.2 billion. Thus, during this period the United States exported approximately 83% more to the United Kingdom than it imported from Britain during the post-war years.

BRITAIN'S TRADE WITH U.S.A.

I—Britain's Trade with U.S.A.—1960 (U.S. \$ million)

	1950	1958	1959	1960
Br. Imports (c.i.f.)	592	981	1,037	1,588
Br. Exports (f.o.b.)	316	761	1,008	903
Br. Re-exports (f.o.b.)	40	53	60	48
Apparent deficit/surplus	—236	—167	+31	—637

II—Main U.K. Exports to U.S.A. in 1960 (f.o.b.) compared with 1959 (U.S. \$ million)

	1959	1960
Road vehicles and parts	275	203
Machinery (non-electrical)	125	136
Whisky	98	101
Aircraft, and engine components and parts	52	63
*Miscellaneous manufactures	49	50
Iron and steel	39	36
Machinery (electrical)	41	35
Non-ferrous base metals	66	31
Chemicals	32	30
Woolen and worsted goods	31	29
Clothing, footwear, travel goods, handbags etc.	28	28

III—Main U.K. Imports from U.S.A. in 1960 (c.i.f.) compared with 1959 (U.S. \$ million)

	1959	1960
Machinery (non-electrical)	122	187
Cereals	194	183
Tobacco	117	150
Chemicals	94	141
Non-ferrous base metals	50	119
Aircraft, and engine components and parts	8	90
Cotton	46	80
Iron and steel	8	70
Machinery (electrical)	32	55
Fruits and vegetables	41	48
*Miscellaneous manufactures	21	45

*Includes various consumer durables, musical instruments, household goods, toys, sports goods etc.

The 1960 figures of Anglo-United States trade are equally revealing. Preliminary returns indicate that during last year Britain imported from the United States goods valued at \$1.58 billion and only exported to the United States goods valued at \$951 million, thus leaving a balance in favor of the United States of \$637 million. During that year, Britain took a wide range of American products, many items showing a marked increase over the figures for 1959. Some of the principal U.S. exports to Britain (and British exports to the U.S.) are listed on an adjoining page.

It may not be widely known that the American steel industry exported to the United Kingdom during 1960, 334,586 long tons of iron and steel valued at \$69 million. Of this figure, plate and sheet alone represent \$53 million. During the same period Britain exported to the United States 189,706 long tons of iron and steel valued at \$36 million. These figures therefore represent a two-way trade which is very much in favor of the American steel manufacturers and the workmen concerned. It is worth noting that an important quantity of American steel sheet is used in the manufacture of British cars, some of which are subsequently exported to the United States market.

During 1960 Britain imported chemical products from the United States to the value of \$141 million. The British chemical industry, however, only exported products valued at \$29.6 million to the American market, so in this case the balance in favor of the United States was \$111 million. It cannot, therefore, be claimed that the British chemical products have deprived Americans of their livelihood. In fact, many British chemicals are used as raw materials in factories which provide employment for American workers.

The American machine tool industry also received considerable benefit from its exports of \$28.8 million to Britain during the past year. On the other hand the sale of British machine tools to the United States during 1960 was \$6.2 million only, leaving a balance of \$22.5 million in favor of this particular branch of American industry. The United States steel industry has also profited, although indirectly, from these machine tools exports.

A further point to be remembered is that cars, machine tools, whisky and the other products which Britain sells to the United States not only provide employment for many thousands of Americans in connection with the distribution, sale, service and advertising of these items but also contribute considerable revenue to the U.S. Treasury. Any reduction in British exports to this market can only result in further unemployment in the United States, a contributing factor towards any recession.

Britain is now America's second largest market. This has been made possible firstly by the dollars which Britain has earned from her exports to the United States and secondly, by the elimination of almost the entire list of British dollar import controls which were imposed not for protection, but because Britain could not, until quite recently, afford to spend in the dollar area. This was the result of the last war, leading as it did to the exhaustion of her foreign currency reserves and loss of earning power. Britain believes in a two-way trade and this move has undoubtedly been of great benefit to the American economy, particularly in respect of recent balance of payment problems. In order to assist the United States to improve her balance of payments situation, the British Government hastened the convertibility of sterling, lowered the Bank rate and speeded the repayment of her loans.

Adequate dollar earnings from exports to the United States are required by Britain not only to pay for food, raw materials, machinery, tobacco, aircraft and other items which are imported from the United States, but also to repay the dollar loans which were contracted by Britain to rebuild her war damaged economy. All of these loans require to be serviced and repaid. In 1959 alone, Britain repaid in respect of these, \$155 million and also refunded, in advance of the due date, a separate loan of \$250 million which had been received from the Export-Import Bank. It will help bring Britain's position into perspective if it is realized that until the turn of the present century Britain will be repaying loans and interest to the United States at the rate of \$150 million each year. In other words, Britain will require approximately \$5 per second during this period to cover the service and repayment of these loans alone, irrespective of the amount which she must earn by her exports to the United States market in order to pay for her imports of American products.

The purchase of a British product by an individual or firm in the United States need not, therefore, adversely affect the American balance of trade, or produce unemployment. On the contrary, it creates employment and also enables Britain to purchase more American commodities and manufactured goods, to the mutual benefit of both economies.

The danger of resorting to campaigns against foreign goods, import restrictions or even boycotts in any form were also clearly stated by President Kennedy during his press conference on March 8, 1961 as follows:

"Two can play this game. Therefore unions in other countries can refuse to unload our goods. Pretty soon we will find ourselves with a serious situation among friendly nations and also one which would be harmful to the gold flow."

The Stately Homes of Britain

Two million visitors, it is reckoned, paid to view the Stately Homes of Britain during 1960. The British on vacation, mingling with visitors from the world over descended upon these splendid palaces, castles, manors and mansions by train, by coach, by private or hired automobile.

For the price of a package of cigarettes, or twenty to fifty cents a head, they were able to roam in gardens rich with fancies and conceits by landscape artists of past centuries. They trekked through mysterious passageways and up and down coiled stone staircases to emerge, maybe, into armor-encrusted banqueting halls, or corridors sombre with ancestral portraits, some quite undistinguished, but here and there the gleaming jewels and flaming silks of a Holbein, Reubens or Leyly. They wandered through high-ceilinged State Rooms with tapestry-draped walls amid heirlooms of furniture and ornament enough to strike a millionaire connoisseur dumb with envy.

Wherever you may be in Britain there is a stately home not more than a few miles away. It stands as it has done down the centuries, a sublime and seemingly unshakeable monument to patrician wealth and splendor. Today the splendor remains, but the wealth, in not a few cases, is as insubstantial as the ghosts that haunt the castle dungeons. It has been spirited away by the Tax Collector and Union rates for the family retainers.

Many stately homes are still run by their owners; others are taken over by the Ministry of Works, (the Government department responsible for public buildings) or pass into the care of the National Trust for Places of Historic Interest or Natural Beauty. How better can they pay their way than by being thrown open to fee-paying visitors? Many, in fact, are run as business undertakings. By adding to the attraction of Britain, they earn a rightful share in the profits of tourism, Britain's biggest "invisible export".

A visit to a stately home is an unforgettable experience. Take, for instance, that first glimpse of Blenheim Palace, home of the Churchills, Dukes of Marlborough, since the early 18th century. Pass through the grey, lichen-stained archway leading from the little Oxfordshire town of Woodstock, and suddenly you see a valley landscape of fairy-tale beauty. A mile or more away, set in rolling grassland, and skirted with balustraded courtyards and ornamental lakes, the rusted-stone palace

spreads itself in mellow grandeur. They call it England's Versailles.

Blenheim took 17 years to build, from 1705 to 1722. And now, for thirty five cents, the tourist can ramble all day in its terraced water gardens while inside the Palace he will find relays of guides (many of them University students earning vacation money) to show off the Red and Green rooms and other magnificent saloons rich with fine china, paintings, tapestries and furniture. On show, too, are the bedroom in which Sir Winston Churchill (cousin of the Duke) was born in 1874, and the fabulous Long Library, with its tall, sun-catching windows, its statuary, and the silver-piped organ in the music gallery. To end the tour there's tea or coffee in the Arcade Rooms overlooking the lily-ponds and the distant willow-lined lake.

Blenheim, for all its loveliness, stands only fifth in the "Top Five" of Britain's stately homes, judged by attendance figures. Pride of place goes to Woburn Abbey, home of the 13th Duke of Bedford. In 1960, more than 430,000 visitors passed through its turnstile, compared with Blenheim's 123,000. Only 44 miles from London, Woburn is run as a business concern, catering for all tastes and all ages. There is even a children's zoo, with swings and roundabouts and milk bars in the pleasure grounds surrounding the treasure-packed mansion. The North Wing dates back to the 17th century; the remainder was added down the years by succeeding generations of Dukes to house their growing collection. It is now valued at \$5.6 million.

When the present Duke inherited Woburn in 1953, \$14 million was owed in death duties and the Abbey was in a state of disorder. Speaking of that hectic time, the Duke said: "We decided to open Woburn to visitors and had only six months to get it straight. My wife arranged all the furniture, and I re-hung the pictures. We seldom finished before midnight, having risen at seven".

The tourist can enjoy the splendid results for forty-nine cents. Fourteen magnificently-decorated State apartments and galleries are filled with porcelain and gold and silverware, as well as period furniture of the finest English and French craftsmanship. And when the eye is sated with so much beauty indoors there is still the delectable park with its European and American bison, and Britain's largest privately-owned herd of eleven species of deer.

If Beaulieu Abbey, Hampshire, has a pull over some equally enchanting homes (it is second in the "Top Five"), this is probably due to its Motor Museum. It is the delightfully incongruous setting of a Cistercian Abbey, founded in 1204, Lord Montagu welcomes some 300,000 sight-

seers annually to his collection of veteran and vintage automobiles, ranging from the first British-made Wolseley of 1895 to a comparatively modern racer.

Third and fourth in the "popularity stakes" are Chatsworth and Warwick Castle. Chatsworth, one of the great houses of the world, is the glory of the Derbyshire Peak District. Home of the Dukes of Devonshire for nearly 300 years, this majestic mansion draws nearly 250,000 visitors annually.

They picnic beside the River Derwent, which flows through the Park, or saunter through gardens ingeniously laid out a century or more ago by Joseph Paxton, whose all-glass Crystal Palace brought the world to London for the Great Exhibition of 1851. And in the house itself, tired feet are all but forgotten in endless corridors of art treasures under ceilings aflame with paintings by the European masters of this neck-breaking art-form.

As a lad in the 1570s, Shakespeare had only a ten-mile walk from his home town, Stratford, to Warwick Castle. It must have looked pretty much the same then as now, a gnarled old Norman stronghold. Then, as now, it was the home of the Earls of Warwick. More than 200,000 travelers each year now visit it.

So much for the 'Top Five'. But the visitor who shuns the crowds at these more popular houses has scores of others to choose from. Easy drives from London take him to Syon House, owned by the Northumberland family 10 miles from the center of London. Hatfield, House of the Cecils, where Elizabeth I held her first Privy Council (18 miles), Cliveden with its Thames side gardens and psuedo Italian temples (40 miles). Knole in Kent, 500 years old, for rugs and tapestries. Petworth a gracious manor in Sussex with one of the countries finest private picture collections; Arundel, also in Sussex, but ancestral home of the Dukes of Norfolk, a many bastioned castle, straight out of a fairy tale.

Go further West. Dunster Castle in Somerset is perhaps the oldest home in all Britain. Dunster's fortifications, dating from 1070, have Saxon foundations going back another 500 years. On this reckoning, the Luttrell family, who came there in 1376, are comparative newcomers.

Honey-colored stone went into the making of Montacute House, in the same county and even in cloudy weather, this lovely 16th-century home appears bathed in eternal sunshine. Inside, windows of heraldic glass sparkle as they did in 1588 when Montacute was first built by Sir Edward Phelps, Speaker of the House of Commons, Westminster.

Make for the English Midlands, and stately homes seem to cluster like constellations. Two examples must serve. Belvoir Castle in Leices-

tershire and Haddon Hall, Derbyshire are both owned by the Duke of Rutland, and each was credited with more than 60,000 visitors in 1960. Belvoir, every inch a castle of fairy legend, is treasure-laden with Gobelin tapestries and paintings by Gainsborough, Reynolds and Holbein. The romantic elopment story of Dorothy Vernon draws many thousands to 11th-century Haddon Hall. Dorothy, daughter of Sir George Vernon, ran away 400 years ago with John Manners, son of the then Earl of Rutland. The match united two great estates, two great families. Today we can still trace the route of Dorothy's get-away—all this, and enjoy tea alongside the rose-gardens, too.

Before quitting the Midlands, visitors pay tribute to George Washington at Sulgrave Manor in Northamptonshire a stately home by any standards, though one of the smallest. It is a good example of an Elizabethan manor house, built about 1560 by Lawrence Washington, direct ancestor of the first President of the United States. Just 100 years later, Colonel John Washington left Sulgrave to take up land in Virginia which later became Mount Vernon.

Then, northwards again calling perhaps in Yorkshire on the way (Harewood House for example) to the rugged England-Scotland border-country of Northumberland, scene of many a foray long ago, and so to battle-scarred Alnwick Castle. Here the tourist can peep into dungeons where the warring Percy family (their descendant, the Duke of Northumberland, lives there still) flung their captives. And then into Scotland itself, land of castles. In Culzean Castle, superbly situated on the West Coast of Ayrshire is a suite of rooms presented to President Eisenhower for use during his lifetime by the National Trust of Scotland as a token of Scotland's thanks for his services as Supreme Allied Commander in World War II. Inveraray castle, home of Clan Campbell, with its armory of muskets, axes, Highland broadswords and relics of the famous Scottish outlaw Rob Roy. And Blair Castle, too, in the heart of the Highlands, haunted still with poignant memories of "Bonnie Prince Charlie" and the lost Jacobite cause of 1745.

Among so many others, is historic Glamis (pronounced "Glahms"), in the county of Angus, seat of the Earls of Strathmore, home of successive Scottish Kings and Queens, and the childhood home of Queen Elizabeth the Queen Mother. Here, where the cars and coaches unload vacation happy travelers they show you the 14th-century Chamber where Duncan was murdered by the inhospitable Macbeths. If, like Macbeth, the weary traveller should by now sleep no more, he can at least meditate on another satisfying 35 cents-worth.

Civil Defense in Britain

by

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In every country, the threat of attack with hydrogen bombs of enormous destructive capacity has made the problem of civil defense more difficult than it has ever been before. For Britain, it is particularly severe for planners there must assume that in world war their small islands—with their operational ballistic missiles and large numbers of both British and American nuclear bomber bases—would be one of the primary targets. They also have to recognize that the size of the country limits the contribution that dispersal and evacuation could make. As these facts have become more obvious and more terrible, civil defense planning has become more difficult. But the British Government has adhered strongly to the conviction that though casualties and damage would be on an enormous scale millions could be saved if the organization is ready and trained to do the job. More than half a million people, convinced that this is right, have joined the various civil defense services as volunteers.

Extensive experience of organized first aid, fire fighting and evacuation was built up during the months of the Battle of Britain in 1940 and the long years of war which followed. Immediately after the Second World War, civil defense was abandoned as unnecessary to the kind of peacetime forces which were then planned. It was only after Russia exploded its first atomic bombs that it was decided to make preparations for civil defense a permanent part of the defense program.

Spending reached its highest level towards the mid-1950s as stocks of such things as food and oil were developed and plans were laid for bringing shipping into special ports which might be expected to have escaped destruction. From 1955 onward, however, official government defense doctrine had to take account of the increasing nuclear strength which both sides were rapidly achieving. Much more effort was to go into deterring war by the threat of retaliation and much less into fighting it with such defensive weapons as fighters and anti-aircraft guided weapons. But this doctrine, which might have led to the dismantling of

civil defense, was not taken to the point of scrapping either fighters or the defenses of the civilian population. The government made its thinking clear at that time:

“While available resources should as far as possible be concentrated on building up an active deterrent power, it would be wrong not to take some precautions to minimize the effects of nuclear attack, should the deterrent fail to prevent war. Civil Defense must accordingly play an essential part in the defense plan.”

That was four years ago. Since then, planning has had to consider the consequences of nuclear attack and has made considerable progress. Particular aspects such as the original plan to evacuate 12 million people from the large cities are still under review, but in general ideas for securing the maintenance of government and the means of survival in the widespread destruction which would follow attack have been pushed ahead. This year the Government has announced a revised program under which expenditure on civil defense is being increased.

The British plan for civil defense is based upon the fact that the scale of damage from nuclear weapons requires a system of control which transcends peace-time administrative boundaries. For operational planning, England has therefore been divided into 10 regions, with an 11th for Wales. Each of these would have a regional commissioner who would be empowered to govern his area if communications with the central government broke down. Scotland has been divided into three zones with a Scottish national headquarters.

In each of these war-time capitals the various departments of state would have their representatives who would become the agents of the commissioner. For example, in peace-time the Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food is responsible for planning emergency food supplies, the Ministry of Housing and Local Government for emergency water supplies and the care of the homeless, the Post Office for communications and the Ministry of Health for hospitals and medical supplies. Each of these would have a senior officer advising the local commissioner.

In peace-time the eleven regions in England and Wales are staffed by regional directors who are civil servants answerable to the central government. Each employs a fulltime staff of about a dozen. Most of the regional directors have senior appointments in one of the armed services and their responsibility is to develop and to exercise general supervision over the thousands of civil defense corps and auxiliary fire service volunteers. These volunteers are recruited and trained by local government—the county authority for the country areas and their city equivalents the county boroughs.

At the same time, the country has a parallel organization dividing it into military districts, each with a commanding officer. Any regular forces in Britain at the time and not needed for fighting would be used for civil defense work; and the main army reserve, the Territorial Army, has been given the task of civil defense as one of its roles in a new reorganization. This has been laid down as "the provision of headquarters and units to aid the civil power and to support the Regular Army in the United Kingdom." Every year, one quarter of this 200,000-man force does its annual two weeks' training on civil defense at the special civil defense schools—either at Pendells, near Redhill, in the south of England, or at Millon, Cumberland, in the north. This is the third year of this training; and it is expected that by the end of 1962 the whole of the Territorial Army will have completed this training. Some of these units are committed to the direct reinforcement of British troops in Germany in time of war, but it is expected that those of these trained and disciplined troops who were available would form a basic part of the civil defense force.

The system starts, naturally, from its warning arrangements. The civil defense organization gets its first indication that attack is imminent from the early warning radar network. The British radar chain designed to detect bombers has been in a high state of efficiency for some years and the government is convinced that it must have at least four or five minutes warning of any attack. The Anglo-American ballistic missile early warning station which is being built at Fylingdales Moor, Yorkshire, is likely to be completed by the end of 1962 and is to be tied in with the U.K. Warning and Monitoring Organization.

Three kinds of warning have been laid down. Imminent danger of air attack is to be declared by the sounding of sirens. When there is evidence that nuclear weapons have been exploded, areas will first be warned that fall-out is expected and later when it is imminent maroons will be fired. Elaborate arrangements have been worked out for classifying areas and ordering the population to remain in refuges until it is safe for them to leave or be rescued. Basic information about the state of radiation in all parts of the country is provided by the Royal Observer Corps. This body has protected posts throughout Britain.

This system and the civil defense arrangements generally depend heavily on communications and a large network of emergency cable and radio links has been built up under the Post Office, which in Britain runs telephones and telegraphs as well as the regular postal services. The aim is to provide alternative routings which avoid the areas of dense population which are thought to be likely targets. It has been recognized that no organization will be of any value if the controllers are not safe

themselves from attack, and new expenditure is being made on control premises which could survive all but direct attack. The man responsible for the civil defense system, Mr. R. A. Butler, the Home Secretary, said recently that larger stocks of radio equipment for the life-saving services themselves and for the chain of command were to be provided.

There are various civil defense services of which the most familiar is the Civil Defense Corps which in England and Wales has a present strength of about 325,000. Another 175,000 are enrolled in the Industrial Civil Defense Service in the factories. To this 500,000, one may add an Auxiliary Fire Service of 20,000, a Special Constabulary of 48,000 and a reserve of people to work with the hospitals of 60,000. The Civil Defense Corps itself is divided into a headquarters section, a warden section, an ambulance and first aid section, a welfare section, and a rescue section. Most of the women (who make up over half the numbers) are in the welfare section, while most wardens and all the rescue workers are men. It is recognized that even with the Territorial Army, units of the Regular Army and the regular police and fire service (all of whom are trained in civil defense methods), the numbers would be small for handling the problems of a serious attack. But the existence of a trained body of this size makes expansion possible if war should become a serious prospect.

There has been some opposition to civil defense from those who hold that nuclear weapons have made war so unlikely that there is no need to prepare for it; or equally that it could be so terrible that there is nothing to gain from civil defense measures. But the main obstacle to recruitment is the traditional reluctance in Britain to volunteer for training before an actual state of emergency arises.

The present level of expenditure has risen to £20 millions this year. Much basic spending has already been done. The main targets for the immediate future include the development of plans for the emergency control system and communications, oil storage and distribution, the further development of the warning system, the protection of public water supplies and the maintenance of ports, shipping and railways in conditions of attack. More medical, fire fighting and radiation measurement equipment is steadily being stocked and civil defense workers are being trained in their use. The Government regards it as necessary for defense plans to include a balanced and realistic home defense program in which central government, local authorities, essential services and the civil defense service can all play their part. The number of volunteers who have been attracted to the civil defense services suggests that this view is shared by a large section of the public.

Britain's National Health Service

Britain's National Health Service is a comprehensive one, offering within the UK a complete range of services necessary to maintain good health. The National Health Service Act, 1946, was designed to do just that in England and Wales. The National Health Service (Scotland) Act, 1947, and the National Health Service (Northern Ireland) Act, 1948, established similar schemes, with administrative differences, in Scotland and Northern Ireland.

The introduction of the Health Service did not mean a break with the past. The aim was to strengthen and expand existing schemes so that benefits once available only to insured persons or those who could afford to pay for them, or as a form of charity, would become available to all.

The former health and medical services were regrouped in the new Service and entirely new administrative machinery was devised. The Service is constituted in three main parts: the *general practitioner* (including dental) services, *hospital and specialist* services, and the *local health authority* services (comprising a range of home and clinic services for prevention, treatment and care).

The total cost of the health services in 1957-58 was \$36.4 a head of population—about the same amount as was spent on public education. The working of the Service in all its branches is continuously under review, and modifications and improvements are being made as their desirability emerges. Amending Acts were passed in 1949, 1951, 1952 and 1957; and National Health Service Contributions Acts in 1957, 1958 and 1961.

A number of misleading charges against Britain's National Health Service are current today in the United States. Some of the most frequent charges are given below, each with a correction.

I. Origins and Principles

1. *Charge: The scheme was devised by socialists, even communists.*
Correction: In 1942 Lord Beveridge, a Liberal, reported on the social and allied services and recommended a comprehensive health service. In 1944 the National Government under Sir Winston Churchill accepted this principle and issued a White Paper setting out proposals for a comprehensive service. After the war the Labour Government passed the National Health Service Act 1946 which was based on the Churchill Government's White Paper. All parties broadly support the service as it now stands.

2. *Charge: The scheme is only available to contributors—is a contributory insurance scheme.*

Correction: Everyone may use the service either in part or in whole, and no insurance qualifications are necessary. Visitors may also be treated (but those coming to Britain especially to take advantage of the service are expected to pay).

3. *Charge: The scheme is not comprehensive.*

Correction: The scheme offers a complete range of medical and ancillary services. The Health Minister is required by the Act to promote “a comprehensive Health Service designed to secure improvement in the physical and mental health of the people . . . and the prevention, diagnosis and treatment of illness.” 97 per cent of the people have chosen a medical advisor within the Service. Only about 600 general practitioners out of a total of some 22,000 have chosen to remain outside the service.

4. *Charge: The scheme can no longer claim to offer free treatment.*

Correction: The cost of the service falls mainly on the taxpayer. This was understood from the first. (Beveridge report: “. . . a new public responsibility . . . to see that all medical facilities are available to all people. . .”). One seventh of the cost is met by contributions (see (8) below) one twentieth is recovered from certain less-than-cost charges (see (9) below).

5. *Charge: The scheme leaves no freedom of choice for doctors or patients.*

Correction: All people are free to use or not use the service. A person choosing a private doctor for usual consultations may still go to the hospital service if he prefers that to a private hospital or nursing home.

Doctors, surgeons, etc., may keep a private practice alongside National Health Service practice (although the same patients cannot be treated privately and under N.H.S. by the same Doctor).

There is no lay interference on clinical matters. Professional people only are the judges of suitable treatment.

II. Administration

6. *Charge: The Service leaves no room for voluntary effort.*

Correction: Most of the administration is in the hands of those who serve in an *unpaid voluntary* capacity—about 10,000 in England and Wales who serve on Regional Hospital Boards, Hospital Management Committees, and on the Health Committees of Local Authorities, etc. They receive no remuneration but their out of pocket expenses. They are assisted by an official secretariat. Since its inception there has been no falling-off in volunteers. The administrative costs of the Service are remarkably low, being about 3 per cent of the total expenditure.

7. *Charge: The service is run by an army of civil servants.*

Correction: Apart from the staff of the Ministry of Health (which numbers less than 3,000 and deals with *all* aspects of health, not only with the administration of the service) there are no other civil servants among the half million people employed in the service.

These people are professional people: in the *hospital service* about 20,000 medical and dental staff, 200,000 nursing and midwifery staff (whole-time and part-time), 22,000 professional and technical staff (other than medical, dental and nursing), 32,000 administrative and clerical staff, 200,000 works, maintenance and domestic staff (whole-time and part-time).

Outside the hospital service there are 22,000 family *doctors* (including assistants, etc.) in general practice, 10,000 *dentists*, 7,000 *opticians* and the *public health staff* of local, city, etc., health authorities (the usual medical, nursing, administrative and clerical staff).

8. *Charge: The National Health Service is now chiefly financed by means of weekly contributions.*

Correction: The service is paid for:

- (a) For the most part out of national taxation in the same way as education, the armed forces and other necessities.
- (b) As to about one-seventh of the total cost from a special National Health Service weekly contribution paid by all active members of the population who also pay National Insurance contributions. The National Health contribution for an employed man is 39 cents, his employer contributes 10 cents. The young and the elderly, of course, make no contribution, but are probably the main beneficiaries.
- (c) 5 per cent of the cost is recovered from prescriptions, etc. (see below).

9. *Charge: The National Health Service is no longer a free service.*

Correction: The total amount recovered from patients in respect of certain nominal charges (e.g. prescriptions 28 cents, spectacle lenses \$1.40 plus cost of frames of the patient's choice) is estimated to amount to no more than 5 per cent of the Service as a whole. There are exemptions for children, the elderly, expectant mothers, hardship cases.

10. *Charge: Family doctors are frustrated by bureaucratic red tape and swamped by a mass of official forms.*

Correction: Doctors have always had to deal with a number of certificates and forms; under the National Health Service there are about 30 official forms to meet various purposes but less than ten of these are in constant use, the others being designed to meet special cases only.

The National Health Service has relieved family doctors of all the paper work involved in rendering accounts to their patients and collecting

or waiving outstanding debts. Before the Service this caused family doctors (and in some cases their wives) a great deal of accounting work and worry.

III. Doctor-Patient Relationship

11. *Charge: The patient has no freedom of choice of doctor.*

Correction: The patient *chooses* his doctor, but the doctor in his turn in rare cases may refuse to take a person on his list. One reason for this is that there is a limit to the number of patients a doctor is allowed to accept under the Service (3,500). A patient may change his doctor if he wishes.

12. *Charge: Anyone who prefers to have a family doctor outside the Service is debarred from using other parts of the Service.*

Correction: A person is free to use all or any part of the Service as he prefers. For instance, if he has a private doctor and it becomes necessary for him to have an operation his doctor may refer him to a hospital where, if he chooses, he may be treated as a National Health patient.

13. *Charge: Treatment under the Health Service cannot be obtained when away from home.*

Correction: When a person is away from home he can go to any doctor in the National Health Service for treatment.

14. *Charge: Patients are not getting proper treatment because of too great demands on the Service.*

Correction: It is true that during the first two years there was a rush on the National Health Service. This was to be expected as many people had not been able to afford treatment before July, 1948. In most instances however, (i.e. spectacles and appliances) the long waiting lists were overtaken in a few years. The number of family doctors practicing as principals increased from 16,750 to 19,654; the number of available staffed beds has been increased by about 27,000 since the start of the Service, the number of hospital consultants has increased from 4,711 to 6,950 and the total nursing and midwifery staff in hospitals has increased by about 35,000 whole-time and 18,000 part-time.

15. *Charge: Preventive medicine is being given no place in the Service.*

Correction: The fact that no financial barrier bars people from seeking early advice and going to the doctor means that many cases of serious illness are being treated earlier than ever before. Increasing attention is being paid to health education and preventive measures and this was a stated objective in the original scheme. Immunization and vaccination against smallpox, diphtheria, poliomyelitis, whooping cough and tuberculosis are available free under the Service.

IV. Ancillary Services

16. *Charge: Everyone has to meet a charge each time he visits the dentist.*

Correction: A charge (maximum \$2.80) when made, covers a course of treatment which may involve a number of visits to a dentist. The partial charges for dentures, including cost of treatment, vary and are subject to a maximum of \$14.00. Dental *examination* is still free. In addition, all persons under 21, expectant or nursing mothers and all patients treated in hospital are exempted from the treatment charge, while provision is also made for those to whom a charge would cause hardship.

17. *Charge: The charges for prescriptions, spectacles, dentures, etc., are causing hardship and thus preventing people in need from taking advantage of the Service.*

Correction: Provision has been made so that people who are unable without hardship to meet the charges may apply to the National Assistance Board. Charges are low, the cost of having a prescription filled, for example, is 28 cents.

18. *Charge: Some drugs and medicines are not obtainable under the National Health Service.*

Correction: The doctor is entitled to prescribe under the Service any drugs or medicine which he considers to be necessary, but he cannot order things which are not drugs or medicines, e.g. foods or toilet preparations. A doctor whose prescribing appears to be unreasonably costly may have to justify it to colleagues on the Local Medical Committee, subject to appeal to independent referees. He may have money withheld from his remuneration if he fails to justify his prescribing.

V. Conclusion

19. *Charge: The National Health Service is not proving a success.*

Correction: The fact that about 97 percent of the people in England and Wales have chosen a doctor within the Service, that nearly all doctors, dentists, opticians, pharmacists etc., have joined it, and that for the first time a great many people are receiving every necessary medical care speaks for itself, as does the fact that all three major political parties broadly support the Service as it stands.

Figures quoted refer to England and Wales. Scotland and Northern Ireland have their own Schemes separately administered.

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